2: Westermarck E-5 (1898-1926) 1926
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INTRODUCTION

THE Muhammadan natives of Morocco are chiefly of Berber race, although the Berber language, which before the arrival of the Arabs was spread over the whole country, has in a large part of it been superseded by the tongue of the invaders. The Berber-speaking tribes, to whom alone the term "Berber" is popularly applied, may be divided into several groups. There are the Berbers of the Rīf, called by themselves Irifīyen and in Arabic Ruâfa, whose country extends along the Mediterranean coast between a line about forty miles south-east of Tetuan and the neighbourhood of the Algerian frontier; the Brâber, who inhabit the mountain regions of Central Morocco and the eastern portion of the Great Atlas range; the Shlōḥ, or Išelḥīn as they call themselves, who inhabit the western part of the Great Atlas and the province of Sūs, situated to the south of it—a territory the eastern frontier of which may be roughly indicated by a line drawn from the neighbourhood of Demnat in a south-easterly direction, and the northern frontier by a slightly curved line uniting Demnat with Mogador on the Atlantic coast and following the foot of the mountains or, in some places, intercepting a strip of the plain; and the Drâwa, who inhabit the valley of the Wâd Drā in the extreme south of Morocco. A fifth group consists of various tribes living in the neighbourhood of Ujda, in the north-eastern corner of the country. All the Berber-speaking people are called by a Berber name Imazīġĕn.

This division into groups is based not only on geographical but also on linguistic considerations. The dialects of the tribes belonging to the same group have greater

3: Hart E-5 (1953-1954)1954 MX3 Rif MX3

DAVID MONTGOMERY HART

AN ETHNOGRAPHIC SURVEY OF THE RIFFIAN TRIBE OF AITH WURYĀGHIL (*)

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* * *

101 [161] Aith Wuryāghil is not only the biggest and most important tribe in the Rīf, but the most heavily populated in the whole of the Spanish Protectorate of Morocco, totaling some 65.000 people at the present time. It is delimited on the north by the Bay of Alhucemas and by the Mediterranean Sea; on the west by the tribes of Buqqūya, Banī Yaṭṭuft and Targīst; on the east by the Nakūr River and the tribes of Tamsamān and Aith Tuzīn; and on the south by Aith Mazdūwī, Aith 'Ammarth and Gimnāya (the last mentioned being just over the 101 border in French Morocco). Although Targīst and most of Banī 197 Yaṭṭuft are Arabic-speaking, the other tribes all speak the Riffian dialect of Berber. Aith Wuryāghil, Aith 'Ammarth and northern Gimnāya form, in particular, a Central Riffian linguistic bloc where Arabic is known only by a tiny literate minority. This dialect, called *Shilḥa* in Arabic and *Thamāzighth* in Riffian, is stronger in the Central Rīf than in any other part of northern Morocco, which gives an indication of the conservatism of the people who speak it. The three 101 nuclear Riffian tribes have all retained in large measure many of

(*) Excepcionalmente se ha conservado el sistema de transcripción usado por el autor del artículo, aunque difiere del adoptado por esta Revista (N. de la R.).

[P. 51]

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their archaic Berber cultural patterns in the face of an ever-increasing Arabization. For this reason, I use the Berber term *Aith* (sons of) rather than its Arabic equivalent *Banī*, which has become current in the literature. Although a tribesman who does know Arabic will say *Banī* when speaking of his tribe to a stranger, he will employ *Aith* when in conversation with his own people. I have also singled out the tribe of Aith Wuryāghil as the object of this article not only because, at the time of writing, I know it much better than the other Riffian tribes, but because, as it is the largest and most powerful of all of them, it has always taken the leading role in the past history of the Rīf, and it has, on most occasions, called the turn to the other tribes when necessary. The presence of Aith Wuryāghil, with that of Gizmāya, in the confederation of the Ṣinhāja during the great Ṣinhāja-Ghumāra war was what won that war for the former group; and in recent times the tribe produced 'Abd al-Karīm, of whom we shall say more later on.

Running in a northeast-southwest direction, the tribal territory, 1028.5 square kilometers, consists, in the north, of an open alluvial plain bordered on the east by the mountains of Tamsamān; this plain overlooks the Mediterranean and forms the Bay of Alhucemas. Further south it gradually ascends into and merges with the brown, barren and eroded mountains which are such a characteristic feature of the Riffian landscape; these are bisected by arroyos and high valleys, and in Aith Wuryāghil they culminate in the rugged massif of Jabal Ḥammām (1948 meters), which is covered with snow in January and February. Vegetation consists largely of scrub and lentiscus bushes. Except in the highest altitudes, rain is infrequent even in the winter; the so-called «levante», coming from Spain, brings it suddenly and in the form of flash floods, which change the two sluggish rivers in the tribal territory, the Ghīs to the west and the Nakūr to the east, into raging, torrents. In the mountains the winters, although not long, are cold, but snowfall is much less than in Aith 'Ammarth or in the Ṣinhāja Srair to the southwest, where the mountains are considerably higher. The rest of the year the climate is warm and usually so dry as to produce only a bare subsistence economy.

S: Blanco Izaga G-4,5 (1914-1945) 1975 MX3 Rif MX3
Aith Waryaghar

INTRODUCTION 1:

EMILIO BLANCO IZAGA AND THE SPANISH PROTECTORATE OF MOROCCO

114 Emilio Blanco Izaga (1892-1949), whose work, both unpublished and published, on the social structures and political systems of the Berber-speaking tribes in the Rif Mountains of Northern Morocco we have tried, in the pages that follow, to render into reasonably acceptable English prose, was a colonel in the Spanish Army who, before his untimely death, had nearly twenty years' administrative experience amongst the people whereof he wrote.

A preliminary assessment, by the present author, of Emilio Blanco and of his published work, has already appeared elsewhere[1]; but although much of the material presented in it need not be restated here, in the light of further and later knowledge on my own part, some recapitulation, especially that dealing with Blanco's biography, is certainly necessary.

101 175 Blanco had much of extreme interest to say about the social structure and indeed about the everyday life of the Rifian tribesmen of what was then the Spanish, and now the North, Zone of Morocco, and especially about these same features, with particular attention to sociopolitical institutions, among the Aith Waryaghar: the key tribe, and the largest one, of the Central Rif, the tribe which always "commanded" in the region, the tribe which smashed the Pretender Bu Hmara

[113] 1--David Montgomery Hart, "Emilio Blanco Izaga and the Berbers of the Central Rif", Tamuda, Revista de Investigaciones Marroquies, VI, 2, Tetuan 1958, pp. 171-237.

in 1908, the tribe which, in 'Abd al-Krim, produced both a reformer of Customary Law and a military near-genius who from 1921 to 1926 held both Spain and France at bay, the tribe which I myself studied in detail in the field, as an anthropologist, intermittently, from 1953 to 1955 and again from 1959, intermittently, to 1966; and the tribe which in 1958 to 1959 provided, through a traditional revolt championing modern objectives, the Royal Army of Independent Morocco with its first serious test of strength.

I assume that a good many anthropologists, in the course of their fieldwork, and in that of checking local libraries and archival materials about the tribal groups or societies that they have studied, have chanced across reports on these same tribes by previous colonial administrators of them which have been really meritorious in quality. If such is the case, many anthropologists may logically be supposed to have their "favorite" tribal administrators, district commissioners, or whatever. In my own case, Emilio Blanco Izaga, exasperating as certain facets of his writings are, is certainly the man.

This introduction to Blanco's work is divided into three sections: I) Biographical Data, II) The Spanish Protectorate Administration of Morocco And Blanco's Place In It, and III) A General Critique of Blanco's output as presented in this volume. This presentation is selective, not all-inclusive, because although much of Blanco's material dealt with Rifian sociopolitical institutions, not all of it did so, by any means. Hence, regarding my own initial acquaintance with Blanco's work, I can do not better to quote from my original article.[2]

2--Op. cit., p. 173.

114 seven-chapter work, which as it stands is entitled Conferencia sobre Derecho Consuetudinario Rifeño (Lectures on Rifian Customary Law), and dated December 17-18, 1935, plus numerous isolated fragments of information (some in typescript, most handwritten) which bear on the same subject in one way or another. There are, in addition, four other shorter typescripts, and, of these, the first two I found not amongst the Blanco papers in Madrid, but in the archives of the Bureau of Ajdir, the intervención comarcal site for the Aith Waryaghar, where they were kindly brought to my attention by the then administrator of that tribe, Capt. José Rodriguez Erola, in 1955. The third I found in the Blanco archives in 1960, and the fourth, plus a duplicate of the second, in the Africa Section of the National Library in Madrid in 1970. These papers are: 1) Las Yemáas Tradicionales de los Ait Uariaguel (The Traditional Jma'ath of the Aith Waryaghar), dated Ajdir, August 27, 1935; 2) relevant sections from a longer administrative report entitled Estudio Relativo a la Kabila Fronteriza de Gueznaia (A Study on the Border Tribe of the Igzinnayen[24]), Anexo al Boletín de Informacion, Num. 4, dated April 30, 1940; 3) an unpublished introduction, in typescript, to the work on the Rifian qanuns (to be referred to henceforth as La Ley Rifeña, or simply as LR) published in 1939, which deals with Blanco's hypotheses regarding the survival of Berber Custom and Common Law in an Islamic country and context;

[101] 24--The Igzinnayen are referred to in this particular context as a "border" tribe because they are the one Central Rifian tribe located in the then (before 1956) French rather than in the then Spanish Zone of Morocco. The memorandum in question bears the catalogue no. U/ñ in the Garcia Figueras collection of the Africa Section in the National Library, Madrid.

5: Blanco Izaga G-4,5 (1914-1945) 1975 MX3 Rif MX3
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PART I--MANUSCRIPT DATA ON RIFIAN SOCIOPOLITICAL STRUCTURE

1. STRUCTURAL FEATURES OF RIFIAN SOCIAL ORGANIZATION: ("LECTURE ON RIFIAN CUSTOMARY LAW"), uncompleted MSS., dated December 17-18, 1935.

101 671 A) General Introduction (fragmentary):.....The Berber area of Morocco, or Blad s-Siba, is the land of custom or of customary law, as opposed to the Arab area, or Blad l-Makhzin, which is the land of the Shari'a, or of Islamic Law[1].....

181 1) Berber "virtues" (and Rifian ones) include: a) a zeal for independence; b) a spirit of association (twiza, wuzi'a, dhwara, liff[2]); c) a preference for "democratic" forms of government (councils, "oligarchical" institutions, etc.); and d) a respect for custom[3].

133 134 369 2) A slow descent from the mountains to the plain (what Blanco means here specifically is the relatively rich alluvial Plain of al-Husaima in the lowlands of the tribe of Aith Waryaghar), but without 369 urbanization...There is an indifference to "urban nuclei", which are only visited, and not lived in, except by Europeans. The Rifian's atmosphere is his tribe, and, even more so, his village or local community.

648 671 3) The basic French error in passing the Berber dahir of 1930 was in sending a European magistrate to supervise criminal law proceedings in Berber customary tribunals (in the Atlas Mountains only: translator's note), and this satisfied neither Berbers nor Arabs[4].

177 671 779 4) The Rifian embraced Islam and Berberized it in his "practices and superstitions" (my quotation marks: translator), as he

631 augmentation to the "building" or "house" of Rifian society (of which
621 the traditional jma'th is the "cornerstone").[141]

631 Aith Waryaghar, then, could be organized in the following way:

619 I) QA'IDATE OF L-UTA: Shaikhate of Aith Yusif w 'Ari --12 jma'ths
621 Shaikhate of Imrabdhen --15 jma'ths

II) QA'IDATE OF NKUR: Shaikhate of Bni Bu 'Ayyash --16 jma'ths
Shaikhate of l-Jbil --16 jma'ths

III) QA'IDATE OF UPPER GHIS: Shaikhate of Bni Hadifa --12 jma'ths
Shaikhate of Bni 'Abd Allah --16 jma'ths

Total----87 jma'ths

000 If this organization is applied to the other tribes[142], the patron must be remembered in salary gradation, so that salaries do not turn out to be prejudiced as the Aith Waryaghar have been, up to now, both in salary and category of their office-holders and tribal authorities.

Ajdir, August 27, 1935.

I) Notes on the Igzinnayen:

• 101 1) Etymology and Language:--The word Gzinnaya (Rifian Igzinnayen) is derived from Berber gizna, meaning "libertine"[143]. The
191 tribesmen of Igzinnayen are bilingual, although even so, Rifian speech has a far greater predominance over Arabic. Their men of letters
[212] (fqihs, etc.), although they know how to read and write Arabic, express themselves very poorly in that language, and their grammatical construction tends to be bad. Knowledge of French is extremely slight,

191 if not non-existent[144].....In some of the tribal place names the in-
[101] flux of both Arabic and Berber may be noticeably discerned[145], which in some cases gives rise to a true amalgamation which its (i.e. the name's) Arab or Berber origin does not define with any certainty[146].

186 2) Origins:--The Igzinnayen are proud of their Berber origin and consider themselves to be of a superior race. The Rifian from Igzinnayen holds his Arab neighbor from the tribe of Branis in no little contempt[147].....In the tribe of Igzinnayen, one may observe
619 144 two nuclei of population which show great ethnic differences, one
184 situated north of Tizi Usli, between Azru Aqshar[148] and Axt Tuzin, in which there predominates, as much in physical type as in language and customs, the features characteristic of the Berber origin of this tribe; and the other nucleus, located to the southeast of the first,
648 is of Arab origin[149]. The scorn which the Berbers felt for their
[186] Arab neighbors, combined with the fact that the latter recognized and obeyed the government of the Makhzin[150], gave rise to frequent feuds between the people of each region; and in these tribal wars, the
619 "Berber" group was almost always victorious. During their liff strug-
648 gles, both the warring bands sought aid from among their next-door neighbors; for while the "berber" band received help from the Axt Tuzin, the "Arab" band was able to count upon the support of the Mtalsa (Rifian Ibdharsen) and Branis[151].

114 Up to the present time, it has not been possible to unravel
619 the ethnic origins of the Igzinnayen, which are highly confused[152]. Moulieras, who was never in Morocco, considers them Berbers for the simple reason that they speak Rifian dhamazighth, an essentially

FOOTNOTES:

101 671 114 1--This interpretation of a major sociological conceptualization of Moroccan political history, the dissident Berber tribal area, the area of customary law, as opposed to the Arab area under government control where Muslim law was administered, conforms in all respects to the views of the majority of French observers, who label siba as "anarchy" (which, indeed, it literally means: "anarchy, abandon") and who often overlook the fact that the rural areas of the Blad al-Makhzin were also organized on a tribal basis.

101 671 114 113 648 A later definition by Carleton Coon holds that the Blad al-Makhzin, the land over which the power of the Moroccan Sultans extended, was a "land of order", while the Blad as-Siba, whose inhabitants recognized the Sultan's authority spiritually while denying it temporally, was a "land of insolence" (cf. Carleton S; Coon, Caravan: The Story of the Middle East, New York: Henry Holt, 1951, pp. 295-323). This definition, though linguistically inexact, attains a higher degree of sociological sophistication than the preceding one because of and despite the fact that it pushes the analogy a step further.

More recently, Ernest Gellner has defined siba as"institutionalized dissidence" and "marginal or dissident tribalism" (Saints of the Atlas, London: Weidenfeld and Nicholson, 1969, pp. 2-5), and in a review article of two books by Moroccans who seek to interpret various aspects of their country's history ("The Struggle for Morocco's Past", The Middle East Journal, XV, 1, 1961, pp. 79-90, a review of Abdelaziz Benabdallah, Les Grands Courants de la Civilisation du Maghreb, Rabat 1958, and Mohammed Lahbabi, Le Governement Marocain à l'Aube du XXe Siècle, Rabat 1958), he contrasts the traditional French view of the makhzin-siba dichotomy and a radically reinterpreted view advanced by Lahbabi in which "the same (Gellner's italics) facts, the existence of dissident areas, which were used by the French to illustrate the failure and impotence of Moroccan government are used...to provide the basis for a Consent (hence Anti-Absolutist) Theory of the Moroccan historic constitution." Thus the tribes on the shadowy borderland between the makhzin and siba spheres of influence were presented with a sort of Social Contract situation.

101 196 668 It must be noted that in the Rif the condition known elsewhere as siba was termed Ripublik, and that this not only has nothing to do with 'Abd al-Krim's "Rifian Republican State" (Dawla Jumhuriya Rifiya), but also predates it in time. A primary aim of the'Rifian Republic", indeed, was to do away with the Ripublik.

181 104 2--Blanco does not define any of these terms at this point; he only does so later, in his MSS. chapter on Family Organization. All of them are loaded, as he hints, with institutional implications, and we propose to give here only thumbnail definitions for the reader's convenience. Twiza (Rifian dhiwiza) is perhaps best translated as "corvée", a group work project, generally organized for one day only, such as reparation of an irrigation ditch by those who use it, or voluntary assistance given by his neighbors to a man building a house, or, indeed, obligatory work of a communal nature (such as road repair) undertaken on behalf of the tribal notables or the government; this last, however, is usually termed rkwarfi (an Arabization and Rifianiza-

or similar agglomerates. This might also perhaps explain the persistence in disorder up to exhaustion point, for thanks to an obscure family feud, a chain reaction would unleash violence throughout the whole region as fast as a burning cigarette can produce a forest fire[35].

There is no doubt that through their origins the tribes can be classified into two great groups, Sanhaja and Ghumara, which formed the two great Rifian alliances of the same names, and between which the Rifian tribes were distributed in an apparent equilibrium, as follows[36]:

Ghumara: Ibuqquyen, Aith Yittuft, Aith 'Ammarth, Mtiwa dyal Bhar (Mtiwa of the Sea), Ghmara Proper (Bni Rzin, Bni Khalid, Bni Silman, Bni Zjil, Bni Buzra, Bni Mansur, Bni Grir, Bni Smih and Bni Ziyat), Bni S'aid (of the Jbala, not the Rifian tribe of Aith S'aid), Bni Zarwal, Bni Zarwal, Bni Winjil, Slas, Hiyaina, Branis, Igzinnayen[37], Marnisa, Mtiwa dyal Uta (Mtiwa of the Plain), Bni Mstara and Ghziwa.

Sanhaja: Bni Bu Frah, Bni Gmil, Mistasa[38], Aith Waryaghar, l-Khmas, Bni Waryagil[39], Jaya, Mzzyat, Rgiwa, Dsul, Rhuna, and Sanhaja Srir (Ktama, Aith Siddat, Aith Khannus, Taghzut, Aith Hmid, Aith Bshir, Aith Bu Nsar and Bni Bu Shibt).

However, it seems somewhat limited to attribute the basis of Rifian political preferences and the reason for alliances in the region to this dim and garbled tradition of the very distant past[40]. If, on the other hand, the form of government or religion were in dispute, it would be easier to explain its affinities to the European type[44]. Furthermore, if we discard as vaguely traditional such causes of union

A, [This should read "41" not "44"--Analyst]
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616 as were forgotten by the people, we have no others to explain the liff system save external autonomy and internal equilibrium. The liff is the opponent of group hegemony, as the latter is of the preponderance of one family, and it thus results as a protector of both. This was the cause of the ephemeral character of the empires founded upon such a powder-keg, a mosaic of minuscule autonomous republics, as of the transitory periods of tyranny which they would have undergone. If external danger brought about the sacred interclan unity, internal danger (rivalries and hegemony) separated them, seeing them forced to support themselves, now divided, in other neighboring tribes[42].

(614) Whatever may have been the cause of these alliances, it is certain that among the clans of a tribe there were two bands which put them into this framework and gave them this frame of reference....And if their ethnic origin permits us, in principle, to reestablish the division of the tribes which gave its name to the two great liffs (Sanhaja and Ghumara), it is in the equilibrium and autonomy (author's italics) thus established and in operation that we see the origin and persistence of the other two liffs commented upon, among the Aith Waryaghar[43].

616 619 Perhaps among the Aith Waryaghar, different aspects of this interpretation may be corroborated. We see their khmas or "fifths" allying themselves one against the other to form two rival groups and thus equalizing their internal strength and avoiding attempts at supremacy by individual clans. And we also see how the Aith 'Abd Allah and the Aith Bu 'Ayyash look for their internal security in the tribes which border them, the first uniting with the "Badisiya" tribes of the A_A^A, [Apparently footnote "44" should appear here--Analyst]

[101]

Ibuqquyen, the Aith Yittuft and the Bni Bu Frah on the one hand, while the second unites with the Axt Tuzin and the Thimsaman on the other, thus giving rise to a curious small and narrow passage across the territory of the Sanhajan (sic) tribe of the Aith Waryaghar, through which the Ghumaran tribes can communicate[45]. This might be borne out through other possible passages of the same type which, if found, would widen our political conceptualizations of this problem and might explain the apparent anomaly of ethnographic islets[46]. But in this, before it can be attempted, there must be an agreement on the basic affinities of the tribes in each band, Sanhajan or Ghumaran, and even among the Zanatans[47].

The liffs also seem to show, and manifestly, the reason for this progressive increase observed in the concentration of groups struggling in order to obtain the successive enlistment of possible far-away liff adherents.....so that their support would be required or attracted by the idea of burning of houses, etc., and their sudden disappearance, as if the earth might have swallowed them up, on the retreat of such far-flung allies....and thus creating the vacuum which one might label post-ta'rqiba[48] (author's italics), in order to astonish superficial observers, and coming to doubt the veracity of confidences and trusts, as well as of the enemy whom they had in front of them, and of the sincerity of the peace testimony....And nevertheless, a submission must be accepted as effective for those who are about to make it, or for the next enemy group, seeing that it does not naturally endanger the lives of the warriors, who voluntarily defended the territorial integrity of their part of their liff. The ta'rqiba of this

121 Production and distribution continue to be geared to a series of
433 goals arising out of the status economy. These goals involve
128 obligations attendant to life crises (Chapter 3), incumbent on the correct religious performer, or to placate the spiritual world (Chapter 4), to enhance status and/or acquire allies (Chapter 5). The relationship of the Riffian to the marketplace is described in the final chapter.

101 The field work upon which this study is based was carried
114 out in the Province of Alhucemas in northern Morocco between June of 1965 and November of 1966. The initial month and a half was spent in the port city of Alhucemas arranging necessary papers and working on the local Berber dialect. The following six months were spent among the Beni Wariyaghar in a location of scattered homesteads on the Wariyaghar-Igzinnayen border. The first quarter of 1966 was spent recovering from illness. May to October was spent in a compact village in the tribe of the Ibuqquyen. Field work was terminated in November.

7: Mikesell K-4,5 (1955-1957) 1961 MX3 Rif MX3

PREFACE

IN THIS MONOGRAPH I attempt to explain some features of the cultural geography of the northern (formerly Spanish) zone of Morocco. The work has two related themes. I have sought, in the first place, to interpret the distribution of a selected number of culture traits. My second main effort has been to determine the effects of man's activities on the land. The cultural and physical geography of the area is introduced in chapters i and ii. It seemed desirable to reverse the usual order of geographic presentation and begin with culture rather than nature, for most of the processes described in this work have been initiated by man. The discussion of culture history in the next two chapters covers two millennia. It is my conviction that cultural geography is best studied in the light of origins and dispersals, which implies an unrestricted view of the past. The historical résumé in chapters iii and iv constitutes the foundation for interpretations of modern settlement and livelihood in chapters v–vii. The sum of these studies—cultural and natural, historical and modern—provides the background for an assessment of man's effect on vegetation and soil. In chapter viii the main findings of the entire work are summarized.

In a volume of modest size it is manifestly impossible to consider all elements of the landscape. By choice I have not stressed the areas of European influence and urbanization. The focus of my interest has been in rural areas where the most important goals of life are independence and self-sufficiency. The mountainous area of northern Morocco, like the High, Middle, and Anti Atlas, has suffered little from the obscuring effects of foreign influence. The Arabs, who first entered Morocco in the seventh century, had little interest in the highlands. European colonists, concerned primarily with mechanized agriculture, also preferred lands of gentle relief. All the mountain tribes have embraced Islam, some have learned to speak Arabic, and a few have adopted the Singer sewing machine. But subsistence farming and barter still govern tribal economy, and tradition arbitrates disputes.

When a Moroccan is close to home he identifies himself as an inhabitant of a certain village or hamlet. If further clarification is necessary, he may add that he is a member of a community or canton (*farqa*). He will announce his tribal affiliation (*qabila*) only when he is away from home. For example, in Alhucemas one meets members of the tribes of Ibuqquyen, Aith Wariyaghar, and Thimsaman. It is only in Tetuán or some equally remote place that the same people identify themselves as Rifians. They are keenly aware of being Moroccans or North Africans only when they are abroad.

It follows that this study should begin with hamlets or cantons, and only later consider differences among tribes or confederations of tribes. Unfortunately, this procedure would be impractical. I have been compelled to limit my analysis to differences of large scale. Moreover, I have been obliged to focus my attention on variations in material culture. When a Moroccan is questioned about his neighbors, he seldom comments on the nature of their houses, clothing, or crops. His first thoughts are of personality traits, especially those he regards as objectionable. Here again, I have had to adopt a limited and somewhat distorted

7: Mikesell K-4,5 (1955-1957) 1961 MX3 Rif MX3

perspective. Material traits do not include all of cultural geography, but they do constitute the core of things that the geographer can study systematically.

The thesis of my study of deforestation is that the extent of change can be roughly delimited by historical research and by observation of present trends. In northern Morocco, as elsewhere in the Mediterranean region, the principal agents of deforestation have been (1) domestic and industrial consumption of wood, (2) burning to clear land for cultivation, and (3) destruction of palatable plant material by livestock. There is evidence that each of these agents has been active for centuries. If allowance is made for probable variations in the rate of disturbance, tentative conclusions may be reached as to the extent of change.

For reasons that are painfully evident to all students of Moroccan languages or dialects, correct transliteration is difficult to achieve. Consider the word for "mountain." On French maps it apears as *jebel* or *djebel;* on Spanish maps it is *yebel.* The proper English transliteration of the classical Arabic is *jabal.* But most Moroccans know little of classical Arabic. The usual pronunciation is *jbil,* and this is the way I have written the word. I have tried to transliterate words so that they are intelligible to English-speaking readers. Thus the Maghribi Arabic word for "stream" appears as *wad,* not as *oued* or *uad.* Shawen is substituted for Chauen or Xauen, and Wezzan for Ouezzane. The variant spellings of French and Spanish cartographers are listed in the Appendix.

The field work for this study was carried out from November, 1955, to May, 1957, under the sponsorship of the Ford Foundation. I wish to acknowledge my gratitude to that institution for its support. I am grateful to many Moroccans who helped me to understand their land and culture. Special mention should be made of my frequent traveling companions, Muhammad Miqqi of Ktama and Muhammad ben Hmid l'Arbi of Aith Seddath. I am indebted also to Charles Sauvage of the Institut Scientifique Chérifien for assistance in the identification of plants.

Since returning to the United States, I have profited from correspondence with David M. Hart. Mr. Hart was engaged in ethnological field work in the Rif from 1953 to 1955 and has since returned to Morocco for more extensive research. I am indebted to him for notes on many aspects of Moroccan culture, and especially for his advice on transliteration. The reader with prior knowledge of the literature on northern Morocco will be aware that I have derived great profit from study of the pioneer work of Carleton S. Coon. The illustrations of clothing and house types for chapters i and v were made from my collection of photographs and field sketches by Iris Neff and Jacques Lemieux.

Finally, I wish to express appreciation for the encouragement given to this undertaking by my teachers at the University of California. A preliminary version of this study was prepared as a doctoral dissertation in geography under the supervision of Professors Carl O. Sauer, Melvin M. Knight, and James J. Parsons. The present work has profited from the criticism of Professors John Leighly, Erhard Rostlund, and Clarence J. Glacken.

7: Mikesell K-4,5 (1955-1957) 1961 MX3 Rif MX3

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION: THE "NORTHERN ZONE"

MOROCCANS refer to their country as al-Maghrib al-Aqsa: the "Far West" of the Muslim world (fig. 1). From 1912 until 1956 it was divided into three zones: French Morocco, Spanish Morocco, and the International Zone of Tangier. In March, 1956, a joint declaration was signed by representatives of France and

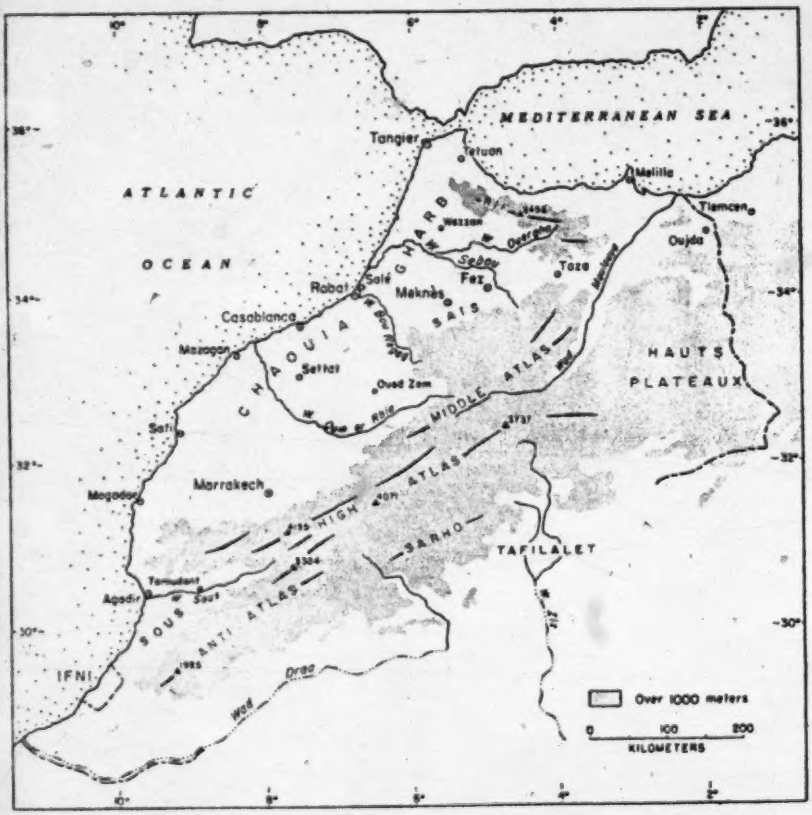

Fig. 1. Morocco: orientation map.

Morocco, restoring independence. Within a month Spain resigned its protectorate, and before the end of the year the international regime was abolished. Moroccan governors promptly replaced the European administrators. Spanish Morocco ceased to function as a separate political unit, although it continued to be recognized as the northern zone. In this study the expressions "northern Morocco" and "northern zone" refer to the area previously under Spanish and international control.

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Fig. 8. Northern Morocco: tribal divisions.

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The northern zone includes an area of about 20,000 square kilometers, roughly one-tenth of Morocco. The maximum width of the zone, from the Strait of Gibraltar to Wad Lukkus, is about 100 kilometers. The maximum length, from the Atlantic coast to Wad Moulouya, is about 340 kilometers. In 1950 the population of the zone was estimated at one million, including 85,000 Europeans in the Spanish protectorate, and another 150,000 Europeans in the cities of Tangier, Ceuta, and Melilla.

Territorial Divisions

Tribesmen of northern Morocco recognize three main confederations: Rif, Ghmara, and Sanhaja as-Srair (fig. 2). Most tribesmen recognize also a territory known as Jbala, the Arabic word for "mountains" or, in this case, "hills." There is no traditional name for the area west of a line drawn through Arcila and Ksar al-Kebir. In the Rif, tribesmen of the Atlantic coastal area are described as Igharbiyen (westerners). The Spanish referred to this area, approximately the basin of Wad Lukkus, as "Lucus." The easternmost sector of the protectorate, roughly the basin of Wad Kert, was known as Quert. The Moroccan government retained this division until August, 1958, when the northern zone was reorganized into larger territories.[1] In the discussion to follow, reference is made to the traditional divisions, not to territories established in recent decades.

The confederacy of Ghmara consists of nine tribes: Bani Bu Zra, Bani Mansur, Bani Khalid, Bani Silman, Bani Siyyat, Bani Zejal, Bani Rzin, Bani Grir, and Bani Smih. It is proper to use the prefix *bani*, Arabic for "sons of," since only a few villages in Bani Bu Zra and Bani Mansur retain Berber speech. According to tradition, these tribes are descendants of the nine sons of an immigrant schoolmaster named Aghmir.[2] Whether this explanation is historically accurate is unimportant. The significant point is that the Ghmaran tribes have a sense of belonging together through descent from a common, if perhaps hypothetical, ancestor.

The confederacy of Sanhaja as-Srair is formed of ten tribes: Ktama, Aith Seddath, Bani Gmil, Aith Khannus, Taghzut, Aith Bu Nsar, Bani Bu Shibat, Bani Hmid, Aith Bashir, and Zarqat. Here it is proper to use *aith*, Berber for "people of," since the tribes thus designated still speak Berber domestically. On the southern slope of the Rif Mountains, in what used to be French Morocco, are two other Sanhajan confederations, Sanhaja Ghaddu and Sanhaja Musbah, but these groups no longer speak Berber and have little contact with the Sanhajans of the northern zone.

The limits of the Rif are more difficult to trace. Many Moroccans apply this term to the entire eastern half of the zone. Tribesmen living within the eastern area are more restrictive. Bani Bu Frah and Bani Yittuft are usually regarded as Rifian, although they have nearly lost Rifian speech. Mtiwa and Mistasa are disclaimed by both Rifians and Ghmarans; they may be the descendants of immigrants or exiles, for immigrant or exiled Rifians are found near Fez, at several locations in Jbala, and in the Oran department of Algeria. Targist presents a special problem: the cultural affiliation of this tribe has been obscured by the

[1] For further details see *L'Afrique Française*, November–December, 1958; and W. H. Lewis, "Rural Administration in Morocco," *Middle East Jour.*, 14 (1960), 45–60.

[2] J. Caro Baroja, *Estudios Mogrebies* (Madrid: Instituto de Estudios Africanos, 1957), pp. 140–143.

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presence of an influential family of *shurfa*, alleged descendants of the Prophet, who encouraged a shift from Berber to Arabic speech. Rifian is spoken in the hamlet of the Aith Azza, but the weekly market of Targist has functioned traditionally as a trading center for the Sanhajan tribes, especially Zarqat. The Aith Mazduwi also appear to be of mixed origin, for both the Sanhajan and Rifian dialects are spoken by this tribe.

Sanhajans and Ghmarans generally regard all tribes to the east of them as Rifian, but among the Aith Bu Yihyi and other tribes of the Kert and Moulouya valleys this appellation is restricted to the tribes of the basin of Wad Nkour. It is useful to think of a zone of transition between the "true Rif"—Aith Wariyaghar, Ibuqquyen, Aith Ammarth, Igzinnayen, Aith Tuzin, Thimsaman—and the eastern frontier of the northern zone. The Ulad Stut are intrusive bedawin, like the Khlut of the Atlantic littoral. The remaining tribes may be described as "eastern Rifians." Two minor confederations are recognized within this group. The first, "Iqar'ayen" in Rifian and "Gal'aya" in Arabic, includes five tribes: Aith Bu Ifrur, Aith Sidar, Imazujen, Aith Bu Gafar, and Aith Shikar. The second, called "Garet" or "Gart" in Arabic, is formed of Ibdharsen and Aith Bu Yihyi. The dialect of the Aith Iznasen is intelligible to most Rifians, but there seems to be general agreement that the Rif, even in a broad sense, does not extend beyond Wad Moulouya.

Land and Livelihood

In the total context of geography, northern Morocco should be described as an isolated and generally inhospitable area. Moving from the Atlantic coast toward the east, the traveler is confronted with an abrupt transition from alluvial plains and terraces to a wild and chaotic zone of steep slopes and narrow ridges. The eastern lowlands are more favorable from a physiographic point of view, but the Rif chain creates a rain shadow, and the tribesmen of the eastern Rif, Garet, and Gal'aya suffer from meager and erratic rainfall. Cut off to the south by the Rif chain and to the north by inhospitable coasts, northern Morocco cannot compare with Greece, Italy, southern France, or Andalusia as a breeding place for advanced civilization. It is a rampart and a place of refuge.

The tribesmen of northern Morocco share an agricultural heritage derived in part from contacts with Phoenicians, Romans, Arabs, and Europeans. Farming methods are primitive, for the mountain tribes learned centuries ago how to grow the maximum amount of food on tiny terraces, and the size of their fields and the steepness of slopes discourage mechanization. Barley and wheat constitute the most important crops. Wherever water is available for irrigation, the cereals, which are dry-farmed, are supplemented by summer crops of maize, legumes, and vegetables. Horticulture provides precious additional food, and during the spring, when cereal stocks are low, raisins, figs, and nuts are staples. In the semiarid lowlands east of the Rif chain, only cereal farming is possible, and famine may be experienced when rains are meager or arrive too late. The great seasonal migration from this area toward the French farms of eastern Algeria resulted from an imbalance between population and food supply.

Variations in crop combinations and diet are partly conditioned by environmental factors, and hence will be considered in greater detail in chapter ii. A

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favored the propagation of xerophytic and heliophilous plants, and thus enhanced the illusion of desiccation. The "tropical" animals pictured on Roman mosaics did not die out as a result of climatic change; they were exterminated by man. The last elephants probably disappeared in Roman time. Lions may have been in the Atlas Mountains until about 1900. Ostriches, antelopes, and other animals nearly extinct in the Sahara still survive along the upper reaches of the Saqiyah al-Hamra in Río de Oro. The arguments for and against desiccation in historic time have been debated at length, and the weight of evidence is against a significant change in climate.[3]

The Berbers

The autochthonous inhabitants of northern Africa are usually described as Berbers. In classical times this appellation, derived from Greek and Latin roots meaning "barbarian," was applied to individuals or groups living beyond the Orbis Romanus. Today Berber is applied as a general name, devoid of pejorative implication, to North Africans who are not Arabized. The people thus designated refer to themselves as *imazighen* (nobles). The European term serves a useful function if its application is determined by the persistence of Berber speech, but confusion results when it is given racial, moral, or psychological connotation. Romantic notions of the Berbers as "noble savages" may be found even in serious works.[4] The French had an instinctive liking for the Berbers, because they seemed more European than Oriental in physical appearance and mental outlook. But the policy of encouraging Berber languages, Berber law, and Berber traditions, as a means of checking Arab nationalism, had at best only temporary success.

The racial characteristics of the Berber-speaking peoples are far from uniform. In the Kabylie, Aurès, Rif, and Atlas mountains one may see dolichocephalic people, with blue or gray eyes, and light brown or even blond hair. Other Berber-speaking peoples are darker and have round heads. Many Berbers are of the classical Mediterranean type. The Tuareg form another group, tall and lean, with short bodies and long limbs. The physical characteristics of the indigenous peoples of northern Africa seem to have resulted from the crossing of several races during widely separated periods.[5]

The confusion surrounding the meaning of "Berber" is further complicated by the fact that French colonial policy called for a division of Morocco into Berber and Arab territories, each with a distinct system of local government and law.[6] In unreasoned protest against the implications of this policy, some authors, sympa-

[TEXT CONTINUED ON PAGE 35]

[3] There are many discussions of this problem: Stéphane Gsell, *Histoire ancienne de l'Afrique du Nord* (Paris: Hachette, 1913–1928), I, 44–99; Jean Despois, *La Tunisie orientale: Sahel et Basse Steppe* (Paris: Les Belles Lettres, 1940), pp. 237 ff.; Rhoads Murphey, "The Decline of North Africa since the Roman Occupation: Climatic or Human?" Association of American Geographers, *Annals*, 41 (1951), 116–132; and K. W. Butzer, *Studien zum vor- und frühgeschichtlichen Landschaftswandel der Sahara* (Wiesbaden: Franz Steiner, 1958), pp. 5–17.

[4] For an interesting example of Berber romanticism, see Edouard Brémond, *Berbères et arabes: la Berbérie est un pays européen* (Paris: Payot, 1950).

[5] C. S. Coon, "Tribes of the Rif," *Harvard African Studies*, 9 (1931); L. Cabot Briggs, "The Living Races of the Sahara Desert," Peabody Museum of Archaeology and Ethnology, *Papers*, 28 (1958).

[6] As recently as September, 1956, pamphlets urging the Berber tribes to revolt against "Arab imperialism" were distributed in Morocco. The Moroccan police promptly established that these tracts had been typed and mimeographed on machines used by an organization known as the "Présence Française." For the text of one of the tracts and the Moroccan reaction to it, see *Al-Istiqlal*, September 7, 1956, and the *Tangier Gazette*, September 14, 1956.

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thetic to Morocean or "Arab" nationalism, refer to a "Berber myth" and refuse to recognize any ethnic division in the country.[7] The *politique berbère* may have had its faults, but this fact does not mean that we should rewrite Moroccan history.

Berber dialects are still spoken by six to seven million people, including about 45 per cent of the population in Morocco, about 30 per cent in Algeria, and about 2 per cent in Tunisia.[8] Berber dialects are spoken also in the Jabal Nefusa and the Siwa oasis in Libya,[9] and on the southern fringe of the Sahara. The Berber language once extended to the Canary Islands.

The Berber-speaking peoples of northern Africa are now concentrated in five groups: Rifians, Braber, Shluh, Kabylies, and Shawiya (fig. 9). They are chiefly mountaineers, and all but the Braber, who practice transhumance, are sedentary farmers. The other groups include the Ghmara, who are almost completely Arabized, the tribesmen of Sanhaja as-Srair, a small colony on the island of Jerba, the Tuareg of the central and southern Sahara, and the inhabitants of the oases of Mzab, Touggourt, Ouargla, Ghardaia, Figuig, Gourara, and Touat.[10]

The original home of the Berber language is unknown, but scholars believe that it is most nearly related to Ancient Egyptian, Cushite, and certain of the Chad languages, which are traditionally but perhaps improperly called Hamitic.[11] This relationship reinforces the theory advanced by archaeologists that the Neolithic of northern Africa shows Egyptian influence.[12] In spite of a bewildering number of dialects, which is normal for an ancient language without literature, Berber can be divided into three groups: Masmuda, Sanhaja, and Zenata.[13] Masmuda was the language of the majority of the sedentary farmers before the Arab invasion. The Shluh and the Ghmara speak it today; Rifian is thought to be a mixed form. The Sanhajan dialect was the speech of the transhumants and nomads. It is now spoken in northern Morocco (Sanhaja as-Srair), in the Middle Atlas, and by the Kabylies, Shawiya, and Tuareg. Zenatiya, formerly confined to the high plateaus of Algeria and the Oujda region, has spread to many of the Saharan oases, including distant Siwa. Because of natural population growth the number of Berber speakers has increased, but the area of Berber speech has lost ground to Arabic. In fact, since the Muslim conquest Berber has gained ground only in Negro Africa, where some tribes in the Niger Territory and the French Sudan have adopted the Tuareg dialect. Without fixed grammar or an effective system of writing, Berber could not compete with the language of the Prophet.[14]

[7] Marvine Howe, "The Birth of the Moroccan Nation," *Middle East Jour.*, 10 (1956), 1–16.

[8] G. H. Bousquet, *Les Berbères* (Paris: Presses Universitaires de France [collection "Que Sais-Je?"], 1957), pp. 16 ff.

[9] Louis Dupree, "The Non-Arab Ethnic Groups of Libya," *Middle East Jour.*, 12 (1958), 33–44.

[10] On the distribution of Berber speech, see also André Basset, *La langue berbère* (London: Oxford University Press, 1952).

[11] J. H. Greenberg, *Studies in African Linguistic Classification* (New Haven: Compass Publishing Co., 1955). First published in *Southwestern Jour. Anthro.*, 5, 6, 10 (1949–1954).

[12] Egyptian influence on north African rock art is examined in Raymond Vaufrey, "L'art rupestre nord-africain," *Archives de l'Institut de Paléontologie Humaine*, Mémoire 20 (1939). The most striking evidence of direct influence is the presence in Algeria of rock drawings of rams wearing the solar disk associated with the worship of Re. When worn by the ram, which was sacred to Amon of Thebes, it indicates Amon-Re, the composite god of Egypt during the New Kingdom (1600–1100 B.C.).

[13] These are the major genealogical divisions of Ibn Khaldun. Strictly speaking, it is not correct to use this division in linguistic classification.

[14] The only system of writing at the time of the Arab conquest was the Libyco-Berber alphabet used in rock art. This alphabet was probably developed from ideas borrowed from the Phoeni-